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THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT TODAY, A CASEBOOK AND A GUIDE TO RESEARCH. RHETORIC CURRICULUM V. TEACHER AND STUDENT VERSIONS.

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IN THIS FINAL UNIT OF THE GRADE 11 RHETORIC CURRICULUM, STUDENTS ARE ASKED TO APPLY WHAT THEY HAVE LEARNED IN EARLIER UNITS BY WRITING A RESEARCH PAPER BASED ON READINGS FROM DIVERSE SOURCES BUT UNIFIED IN THEME--"THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT TODAY." THE CASEBOOK WHICH IS PROVIDED LISTS READINGS ON THE THEME AND MAKES SUGGESTIONS FOR PAPERS USING EITHER ONLY THE CASEBOOK READINGS OR THE CASEBOOK AND ADDITIONAL OUTSIDE RESEARCH. THE UNIT ALSO PROVIDES A RESEARCH GUIDE WHICH CONTAINS INFORMATION ON THE NATURE OF RESEARCH, PLAGIARISM, THE PRESUPPOSITIONS OF RESEARCH, FACT-FINDING, THE RELIABILITY OF OPINIONS, THESIS DEVELOPMENT, AND FORM FOR FOOTNOTES AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES. THE EMPHASIS OF THIS UNIT, HOWEVER, IS ON BASIC PROBLEMS OF RESEARCH AND NOT ON MATTERS OF FORMAT. THE TEACHER VERSION CONTAINS A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO THE UNIT WHICH ELABORATES ITS AIMS AND EMPHASES AND PROVIDES SUGGESTIONS FOR GUIDING STUDENTS' DISCUSSION OF THE CASEBOOK MATERIAL AND WRITING OF THE RESEARCH PAPER. SEE ALSO ED 010 129 THROUGH ED 010 160, ED 010 803 THROUGH ED 010 832, TE 000 195 THROUGH TE 000 220, AND TE 000 227 THROUGH TE 000 249. (DL)

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and
A GUIDE TO RESEARCH

Rhetoric Curriculum V
Teacher Version

TE000 203

The project reported herein was supported through the Cooperative Research Program of the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

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and
A GUIDE TO RESEARCH

Rhetoric Curriculum V

TEACHER VERSION

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Preface

Just about every day you can hear someone insist, "But everyone is entitled to an opinion." In a free society, such as the one we enjoy, this may be so; but even within a free society no one who is well informed considers every opinion equally valid. Being well informed--being well educated--involves the ability to discriminate carefully between an opinion which is worth considering and one which is not. But even though an intelligent reader may reject or accept an opinion as soon as he has heard or read it either entirely or in part, he has spent much time and effort acquiring the skills of intellectual discrimination.

Whether you realize it or not, you make very sophisticated judgments of other people's opinions every day. Consider these opinions: "An XKE is better than a Triumph." "Always fish for trout with your back to the sun." "A redhead should never wear a red dress." "Parents are usually more conservative than their children." "College graduates make more money than non-graduates." According to your experiences with cars, fishing, and redheads, you are likely either to accept or reject the first three opinions; and according to what you have read or heard, you would similarly judge the last two.

But how objective and reliable are your opinions and your judgments of the opinions of others? No doubt they serve you well enough for your everyday needs, for if they didn't you would probably alter them without much hesitation. But when we approach a very complex problem such as the comparative social philosophy of parents and children or the economic advantages of a college education, everyday experience is neither extensive enough nor reliable enough for us to formulate an opinion with any degree of confidence. Thus, for such extensive topics as these, we need to consult a wide variety of opinions and to evaluate those opinions by checking their author's information against the information of other authors or the information provided by some disinterested, objective source of information. That is, we need to do some research.

Yet this is only part of what is involved in doing research, for the result of such a sifting of opinion and fact is usually the creation of new opinion of our own. It is this new opinion which is the most important product of research. Coming up with a new opinion is, by no means, an entirely new task. Throughout your study of rhetoric for the last four and a half years you have been paying close attention to the precise meaning and choice of words, the concern for the opinions of an audience, the construction of an argument, and other skills which are indispensable in doing research and in writing a research paper. Part II of this unit deals with the use of those skills in evaluating the opinions of others and in coming up with valid opinions of your own.

Unlike an ordinary research project, however, the information necessary for the one you will undertake is entirely provided for you in the casebook. This has at least two advantages. Many high school libraries are too small to provide adequate information for all but a few research topics, and it will be easier for your teacher to help you through the various phases of your project if he has read all the source material that you incorporate into your paper.

As you begin to read the casebook, you will notice immediately that your own notion of the American high school student today is limited by what a sociologist might call your frame of reference. You are likely to think of high school students in terms of what you think of yourself and your friends, what your parents and other adults think of you and your friends, and what your friends think of you and of each other. As you progress through the casebook, however, your frame of reference should become broader so that you also see high school students and their problems through the eyes of the authors whose essays you read. This does not mean that you will agree with all the essays; that would be difficult, since they often contradict each other. Rather, it means that you should consider each author's opinion and, if you reject it, know why you reject it. Once you have done this, you will be entitled to an opinion worthy of someone else's consideration.

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PART I

The American High-School Student Today

Introduction

The articles that follow deal with what many sociologists believe are key problems in adolescent society. Every age in the history of Western civilization has expressed deep concern about its youth, since one generation realizes that what it has accomplished will be inherited by the generation that follows. When a younger generation seems more concerned with its own future than with what has been accomplished in the past, often the older generation is distressed. When this worry becomes alarm, we begin to hear it said that "youth is going to the dogs." But in one form or another the alarm which this phrase expresses has been felt by parents and persons of authority at least since the time of Aristotle.

What we ask, then, as the central question in this casebook is, "Is there an actual revolution taking place in the behavior of high school students today?" In concerning ourselves with this question, we have necessarily limited our focus, concentrating on five specific problems--dress and fashion, teenage marriage, finances, the rush to college, and the dropout. As you read these selections, try to limit the subject even further, so that you eventually formulate a single thesis which you will explore in your own research paper.

I. The Teenage Revolution: Myth or Reality?

"American Teen-Agers of the 1960's--
Our Despair of Hope?"

by Blaine R. Porter

(For text, see Journal of Marriage and the Family, LVIII (May, 1965), pp. 139-147.)

"Adolescence in an Open Society"

by Edgar Z. Friedenberg

(For text, see Coming of Age in America (Random House, New York, 1965), beginning on p. 3 with "What is most extraordinary about youth. . . ." and ending on p. 14 with ". . .looks and sounds different.")

"Conclusion" from Growing Up Absurd

by Paul Goodman

(For text, see Growing Up Absurd (Random House, New York, 1960), pp. 237-241.)

"Inner Direction and Other Direction"

by David Riesman

(For text, see The Lonely Crowd by David Riesman, Nathan Glazer, and Reuel Denney (Doubleday, 1953), beginning on p. 29 with "A definition of inner-direction. . . ." and ending on p. 39 with ". . .rapid changes of signals.")

II. Dress and Fashion

"The Neuter Look"

(For text, see "Uni-sex" in Newsweek, Vol. LXVII (February 14, 1966), pp. 59-60.)

"Hairsplitting"

(For text, see Time, Vol. LXXXVII (May 27, 1966), pp. 55-56.)

"Regulating Student Dress"

by Dorothy Waleski

(For text, see NEA Journal, Vol. LV (April, 1966), pp. 12-14.)

"Wild Hairdos and Eccentric Clothes Cause Publicity But Few Problems"

by Marilyn H. Cutler

(For text, see Nation's Schools, Vol. LXXV (April, 1965), McGraw Hill Co., New York; pp. 86-88.)

III. Teen-age Marriages

"Trends and Prospects for Young Marriages in the United States"

by Lee G. Burchinal

(For text, see Journal of Marriage and the Family, Vol. LVIII (May 1965), pp. 243-254.)

"Teen-Agers: Growing Up Too Fast?"

by Audrey Rieger

(For text, see The Clearing House (October 1963), pp. 74-76.)

"The Early Marriage Debate"

by Cecilia Evans Barrish

(For text, see Practical Forecast (April 1965), pp. 12-13, 40-41.)

"On What Can Be Done About Teen-Age Marriages"

by Earl H . Hanson

(For text, see NEA Journal, Vol. L (September 1961), pp. 26-28.)

IV. Finances

"Why Today's Teen-Agers Seem So Different"

by Eugene Gilbert

(For text, see Harper's Magazine (November 1959), Vol. CCIX, Harper & Row; pp. 76-79.)

"The Economics of a Teenager"

by Philmore B. Wass

(For text, see National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, XLIX (April 1965), pp. 29-32.)

"Teen-Age Shopping"

by Grace and Fred M. Hechinger

(For text, see Teen-Age Tyranny (Wm. Murrow, New York, 1963), pp. 151-179.)

V. The Rush to College

"College Education for What?"

by Wayne C. Booth

(For text, see NEA Journal, LIV (December 1965), pp. 14-16.)

"After Graduation, 63 Per Cent to College!"

(For text, see Senior Scholastic, LXXVI (April 27, 1960), p. 28.)

"Consequences of the Social Climate for Homework and College Attendance"

by James Coleman

(For text, see The Adolescent Society (The Free Press, New York, 1961), beginning on p. 266 with "Two factors that might at first. . . ." and ending on p. 272 with ". . .college-going of Elmtown girls.")

"The New High School Kids"

(For text, see Time, Vol. LXXVIII (December 22, 1961), pp. 38-39.)

VI. The Dropout

"Conclusion" to The Dropouts

by Solomon O. Lichter

(For text, see The Dropouts (The Free Press, New York, 1962), beginning on p. 245 with "Education for all children. . . ." and ending on p. 253 with ". . .problems and school difficulties."; and selection beginning on p. 267 with "In response to a variety. . . ." and ending on p. 269 with ". . .hampered by personality conflicts.")

"Forces Influencing Decisions to Leave School"

by Charles M. Allen

(For text, see Combating the Dropout Problem (Science Research Association, Chicago, 1956), pp. 18-22.)

"A High School Principal Reports"

by Lucius Cervantes

(For text, see The Dropout (Univ. of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, 1965), pp. 126-139.)

"Case History of Robert Rawlinson"

by Lucius Cervantes

(For text, see The Dropout (Univ. of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, 1965), pp. 225-228.)

Suggestions for Papers

Papers Using Only the Casebook

1. Analyze one of the problems explored in Sections II-VI according to the opinions of one of the authors in Section I.

2. To what extent do current fashions emphasize what Riesman has called the trend toward other-direction?

3. What role should the school have--if any--in the regulation of student dress?

4. To what extent is teenage marriage a social problem for the school?

5. What sorts of social problems are likely to develop because a married couple are teenagers?

6. What social forces tend to contribute to teenage marriages?

7. How extensive a problem is teenage marriage?

8. Analyze the articles in Section III according to the information which Burchinal presents in his article.

9. What makes teenagers a likely target for advertisements?

10. How does Grace and Fred M. Hechinger's article reveal their concern for what they call the "teen-age tyranny"?

11. What are the reasons for the rush to college?

12. What are the alternatives to the rush to college?

13. What are the factors which are a principal cause of students dropping out of school?

14. What can the school do to encourage students to stay in school?

15. Analyze the "Case History of Robert Rawlinson" and determine the correlation between his history and the analysis of the dropout problem by the authors of the other articles in Section VI.

Papers Involving Outside Research

1. Find and evaluate the rules for student dress at your school.

2. If you know a teenage married couple, interview them about any social problems which their marriage may have caused.

3. Select three or four issues of such a magazine as Seventeen and analyze its advertisers' attempts to appeal to the youth market.

4. Conduct a survey of students' reasons for wanting to attend college. Evaluate the reasons with the help of Wayne Booth's article.

5. Interview the counselors and vice-principals of your high school and ask them what is being done to help combat the dropout problem at your school.

6. If you know any students who have dropped out of school, interview them about their reasons for dropping out of school and what they feel can be done to encourage students to stay in school.

Teachers' Guide to the Unit on Research

The research paper is one of the most important and one of the most difficult modes of discourse which we ask our students to produce. It is ironic, however, that so little class time is usually given to the really important aspects of the research paper. Often all we emphasize is the form of footnotes, bibliography, and manuscript, leaving the basic problems of research almost untouched. What this unit intends to emphasize is, on the contrary, such essential and inescapable questions as, What is the nature of research? What are its presuppositions? How does one get at the facts and judge an opinion? What steps are involved in writing the paper?

It is these questions which all of us, having at one time done some sort of research, will recognize as the most important and difficult ones we have had to ask ourselves. For our students the importance of posing these questions and suggesting answers lies in making them aware that doing research is not simply a matter of copying sections from the encyclopedia or paraphrasing information gleaned from source materials. What we hope to help them recognize is that, by doing research, they are carried beyond their own limited experience and prejudices to what can make learning a truly exciting and beneficial experience; that is, they will attempt to arrive at the truth and relate it in some meaningful way to their own behavior.

Although it is probably impossible for us as teachers to measure our success in accomplishing this objective, we can nonetheless attempt to make our students aware that both learning and research are intimately related to the way in which an educated person thinks and behaves. But if we can only deal with this objective indirectly, we can deal with a more limited objective directly--the mastery of skills which each student can acquire by critically examining the use of factual information and opinion both by himself and by the authors whose essays he reads.

The Casebook

We believe that the subject of the casebook, "The American High School Student Today," will have a sufficiently immediate appeal to your students that both of these objectives can be attained. In selecting this subject, we had in mind not only that it would appeal to students but also that, to say anything significant about it, one must have factual information. Our concern is not with life adjustment. Indeed there are few--if any--essays in the casebook which are centrally concerned with preaching for or against any sort of behavior. Their purpose is exploring a problem and, often, suggesting a solution to it. Before your students begin to read the casebook, it may be helpful to make this clear, since adolescents seem to have a natural suspicion that everyone who discusses their behavior is really trying to limit their freedom or to persuade them to limit it themselves.

There are many possible ways of teaching the casebook, and of course only you can decide which method is best for you and your

classes. But since it will take many students some time to read the casebook, and since each article can provoke profitable discussion, you may find it useful to allow the students themselves to present the material to the class. Section I is of course the key section, introducing the basic questions which will be explored in the sections that follow. Because of this, and because some of the most difficult essays in the casebook appear in this section, it may be best to lead class discussion about this section yourself. Beginning with Section II, however, you may wish to assign one or two students to each essay--or an entire section to a panel of students--and have them review the essays, argue for and against the authors' claims, and voice their own opinions. The entire class should of course be expected to have read the section being reported on and to participate in the discussion.

The Guide to Research

On alternate days assignments should probably be made in The Guide. Not only is the information contained there essential for writing the research paper, it is also useful in providing students with a method for analyzing the essays they read in the casebook.

The Research Paper

Although the subject a student chooses to write on will often dictate the length of his paper, he should be discouraged from writing on a subject which is too narrow or too extensive. You will probably also wish to limit the length of the essays according to the number of students you have in each class and the amount of time you have to grade the papers. But in any case, six to twelve typed pages should be adequate for exploring any of the questions listed in the "Suggestions for Papers." If a student cannot make his point within this limit, he has probably failed to narrow his topic adequately.

Since the writing of the research paper is the final unit in rhetoric for the eleventh grade, you may find it useful to emphasize, as you correct the essays, the key points of rhetoric taught during this year.

PART II

A Guide to Research

I. The Nature of Research

After reading the casebook you might have the idea that writing a research paper involves pasting together ideas of the authors you have already read, supplying a few footnotes, and perhaps constructing a graph or two. You may have written papers before which involved nothing more than this, but if you have done so, you have no doubt been left with the feeling that writing such papers was not only useless but boring as well.

In certain situations it is useful to write a paper which attempts nothing more than summarizing the views of another author. Such a paper is usually called a "report," and it serves the necessary function either of demonstrating that you have indeed read the material about which you report or of providing information which is part of some class project.

Unlike a report, however, a research paper ought to develop a new idea about a given subject. In coming up with this idea, the writer begins by re-searching his topic; that is, he searches again through information which has already been explored and commented upon. His purpose here is a combination of seeking information, challenging the opinions of other writers, and formulating his own opinion. But unlike the writer of a report, the researcher does not merely repeat the arguments he finds already in print; rather, he uses the opinions of other writers to clarify and support his own views.

It is the presentation of one's own opinions which makes the writing of a research paper both potentially useful and interesting. If the researcher has carefully weighed the factual information which supports his claims and critically examined the opinions of other writers, the paper he writes will be useful to him in adding to his own knowledge in one of the most significant ways in which we acquire knowledge: by relating a body of information to our own values and experiences. Furthermore, if someone is not interested in examining and adding to his intellectual experiences, there is probably little else in which he will be interested.

II. Perspective and Plagiarism

Several practical problems occur when we are formulating our own ideas and critically examining other people's ideas at the same time. One problem is of perspective. It is tempting and easy to become so preoccupied with our own opinions that we fail to give careful attention to conflicting views. At the other extreme is the possibility of becoming overwhelmed by the opinions of other writers. Some students come to believe that anything they read is somehow sacred doctrine, not to be questioned. Since you have been studying rhetoric with some care, however, it should by now be obvious that an idea is only as valid or persuasive as the demonstrated

ability of an author in making it so. But at the same time, complete skepticism is an equally serious handicap. We often hear the exaggerated statement, "You can't believe anything you read in the newspaper." If this were true, subscribers would discontinue their subscriptions or news agencies would stop spending millions of dollars discovering what is happening. The best solution to the problem of perspective is a critical awareness of the problem and an effort to avoid its pitfalls.

Another problem is honesty, both simple honesty and complicated honesty. Simple honesty consists of crediting any distinctive phrase, any sentence, any paragraph to its author. Plagiarism, on the other hand, is an attempt to pass off as one's own work the writing of someone else. Indeed plagiarism is a complex psychological and ethical problem. Students who plagiarize often do so because of some fear that their own ideas are inadequate. Once they begin to be intellectually dishonest, they find it difficult to avoid the temptation to cheat on every paper they write. They aren't convinced that an honest B is better than a dishonest A. If a student lacks the stability to expose his own work to discussion, criticism, and correction--or if he lacks an ethical sense--he is likely to be affected by nothing more than fear of the consequences of his act.

Disciplinary action for cases of plagiarism vary greatly from one school to another. Usually in junior high school, a student, if caught, receives merely an F on his paper. In senior high school, he may be failed in his course. In most colleges, he may be suspended for as much as a year or expelled entirely. For a graduate student or a practicing scholar, an instance of plagiarism finishes his career.

Although problems involving simple honesty never occur accidentally, problems involving complicated honesty often occur because of carelessness or ignorance. As we have defined it, plagiarism occurs when someone willfully copies word-for-word what someone else has written and pretends it is his own. It is possible, however, to paraphrase or summarize the ideas of another writer and use them without giving proper credit to their author. This problem usually occurs not because of dishonesty but because of faulty documentation. We will examine this matter in more detail in the section on footnoting. But in any case, if a writer carefully identifies his sources of information, he is almost never accused of plagiarism or intellectual dishonesty.

III. The Presuppositions of Research

Every intellectual activity which people perform involves what philosophers call "presuppositions." A presupposition is not an assumption. If you say, "I assume I will get an A in this course," you mean that you don't know for sure that you will get an A, but what indications you have lead you to assume you will get an A.

So that we can get at the nature of presuppositions, imagine yourself the owner of some large factory which produces a chemical. One day there is an explosion in your factory, so you hire a scientist to find the cause of the explosion. After a couple of weeks the scientist comes to you and says,

"Sorry, but I haven't found the cause of the explosion. I have used up your $750 in experimenting, but I still don't know what caused the explosion." Suppose you say, "Well, maybe the explosion didn't have a cause." At this point your scientist would give you a strange look and no doubt reply, "Of course it had a cause. All events have causes." Let's imagine you're stubborn and he's patient. You ask, "How do you know all events have causes?" He replies, "I don't know it; in order to know it I would have to know the cause of every event. Rather I presuppose it. If I didn't presuppose all events have causes I wouldn't be able to operate as a scientist."

This, then, is a presupposition: a statement which you cannot prove but which you must accept in order to perform a particular intellectual activity. Like scientific experimentation, research has a set of presuppositions. Like the scientist, the researcher assumes that all events have causes which are natural, logical, or psychological. He presupposes, in other words, that he can study any event and may eventually learn its cause. If he fails to detect its cause, however, he continues to presuppose that if he had only worked at the job longer, he would have eventually discovered a cause.

Further, he presupposes that there is a finite--or limited--number of causes for every event. Perhaps six events led to the explosion in the factory; perhaps 60; perhaps 600. But if the scientist worked long enough, he would be able to detect all the causes contributing to the explosion. Similarly, the researcher presupposes that he can detect all the causes of any particular occurrence.

Further, he presupposes that the methods of research can produce probability and not certainty. Suppose the scientist had replied to your first question, "I have it, Y caused the explosion." "Great," you say, "but are you certain?" To this the scientist would reply, "My methods produce probability, not certainty. Every bit of information I have points to Y as the cause of the explosion. But I do not wish to cut myself off from the possiblity of revision on this point if any evidence should pop up indicating Y is not the cause. I am reasonably sure; that's all I can say." The researcher, too, does not wish to cut himself off from the possibility of revision. He recalls only too well that at one time many people were certain the world was flat and that it, rather than the sun, was the center of the solar system.

IV. Finding Facts

Since research involves finding and interpreting facts and since it presupposes that causes of events are detectable, one of the most important skills a researcher must acquire is the ability to distinguish fact from opinion. On the surface this problem seems much simpler than it actually is. If we consider history, for example, we can superficially distinguish between the chronicler, who simply records events which take place, and the historian, who interprets, analyzes, and offers opinions about what may have caused an event to take place or what significance the event itself

may have on the course of history. But this distinction--though partly accurate--is superficial because no chronicler records every event which takes place. When you watch the news report on television each night, the reporter, who is a kind of chronicler, relates only the events of major importance which happened during the day. He omits such facts as your receiving a C on an English exam. Either the reporter or a news editor has decided--on the basis of his opinion--what information is of general importance or interest. Thus, the selection of facts requires judgment and the careful exercise of opinion.

Besides selecting the facts he considers important and deciding what facts his sources have omitted, the researcher must be concerned with the way in which the facts are presented. Even the name we attach to a particular event may color or interpret the nature of the event itself. A British historian writing about the American Revolutionary War has called it the Colonial Rebellion, while many American historians call it the War of Independence. Here the difference in name is a difference in perspective, even though the event remains the same. Unfortunately, facts never do speak for themselves; they are always subject to the perspective of the researcher for whom they have a particular importance.

The misleading little phrase, "Let the facts speak for themselves," is often used in connection with statistics. We all hear a great many rival claims of toothpaste manufacturers, each of whom claims that a selected group of children who used one brand of toothpaste had a certain percent fewer cavities than another group of children who used some other brand. The appeal of such an advertisement is to the blind trust which many people have in statistics. In his interesting and entertaining little book How to Lie with Statistics (W.W. Norton Co., New York, 1954), Darrell Huff lists five simple questions which can be used effectively to test such a statistic as this.

The first question to ask is "Who Says So?" If the research which led to the conclusion that Brand Q toothpaste prevents cavities better than Brand R was conducted by some independent concern--an agency of the government or a medical research foundation--it is likely to be much more trustworthy than if it were conducted by a research concern employed by Brand Q.

The second question to ask is "How Does He Know?" Even if the research were conducted by an independent concern, the findings are invalid unless the research techniques were themselves valid. If, for example, the children who used Brand Q and had fewer cavities also drank more milk than the children in the other group, saw their dentist more often, and drank fluoridated water--we have every right to ask if the condition of their teeth might not be attributed to these other conditions rather than to the toothpaste they used.

The third question to ask is "What's Missing?" A knowledge of the number of children involved in the comparison is essential. If 10,000 children in every part of the country for a period of 5 years were involved in the test, it would have more significance than if 10 children from New Jersey participated for 30 days. Unfortunately, we are often told the

results of a study in percentage figures rather than in raw figures. Darrell Huff illustrates the danger of this practice by telling an anecdote. Many years ago, when some people still thought that girls should not go to the same colleges as men, it was reported that at one American university thirty-three and a third per cent of the coeds had married faculty members. As a matter of fact, there were only three women students enrolled, and one of them had married a professor.

The fourth question to ask is "Did Somebody Change the Subject?" When someone attempts to draw conclusions from statistics he often makes a significant change from the subject of the survey to the subject of the conclusion. It may be said with deliberate ambiguity that Brand Q toothpaste reduces the cavities of those who use it. What the toothpaste may actually do--if, indeed, it does even that--is prevent new cavities. It does not reduce cavities, either in size or in number. Further problems of this sort arise when statistical results from different years are compared. One study compares the number of unwed teenage mothers in an Eastern city for 1950 with the number for 1960. There were more unwed mothers in 1960 than in 1950, and the study concludes that teenage morality is declinging. Two important facts are ignored, however. One is that there were more teenagers in 1960 than in 1950, since the population of the city increased by 15,000. Another is that a more reliable count was taken in 1960 than in 1950.

The fifth question to ask is "Does It Make Sense?" Darrel Huff recalls that during the amendment hearings about the Social Security Act back in the 1930s someone argued that since life expectancy was only about sixty-three years, it was totally unrealistic to set up sixty-five as a retirement age. This argument can be refuted simply by our personal experience: we see dozens of people each day who are sixty-five or older. Sixty-three may have been an average life expectancy, but the deaths of children and young men in war affected that figure considerably.

V. Judging Opinions

Unlike a statement of fact, which can be verified by reference to actual experience or observation, an opinion largely depends upon the reliability of who says it and on the context in which he says it. We can ask a series of questions which often help in judging the validity of an opinion.

1. Who said it? Even though he may be guessing, an author who is a specialist in his field usually deserves more careful consideration than a free-lance author who writes only for popular magazines. The credentials of many authors can be checked by looking in Who's Who in America, a directory which you should find in your high school library. In judging the author's right to be labeled a specialist, you should make sure that his field of specialization and the subject about which he is writing are the same. Often an author will gain a reputation in one field--physics for example--but then become interested in another--possibly politics--for which he has no training. Bertrand Russell has written authoritatively about mathematics and philosophy; but when he ventures into politics and education, his opinions do not command the same respect.

2. Do the facts which are available lend credibility to his claim? Occasionally an author who is not professionally committed to a field of study will uncover information or suggest hypotheses which contradict established opinion in his field. But because of his independence such an author may be capable of seeing something new in readily accessible facts. On the other hand, a specialist may make exaggerated claims for a thesis which he believes to be true but for which he is unable to provide factual support. In both cases, our concern is with the author's treatment of orthodox opinion and the factual information available.

3. Is his claim logical? Even though an author may be a specialist in his field, he is not immune to logical fallacies. Thus you should pay careful attention when he attempts to draw conclusions from the facts he has uncovered.

VI. Coming Up with an Idea

Once you have finished reading the casebook and considered the validity of the opinions of the authors whose essays are collected there, you should be ready to select a subject for your own essay. Usually some subject will stand out in a reader's mind after he has finished reading such a collection as this, a subject which seems to hold more interest and more possibilities for development than other topics which may occur to him. But simply deciding on a topic is not all that is necessary before you begin to write.

The second step is formulating a research question about your topic. If you decide on the topic of teenage marriage, for example, you will need to formulate such a question as one of these: How widespread a problem is teenage marriage? What social problems are caused by teenage marriage? What significance does teenage marriage have for the school? In formulating such a question, you narrow your topic to a more manageable size, which will make it easier for you to organize your essay.

The third preliminary step to writing the essay is returning to the casebook with your research question in mind, in an effort to find all available answers to the question. If you were using library resources rather than a casebook, it would be necessary at this point to take careful notes so that all relevant information would be at hand as you write your essay. Even though you do have most of your information collected for you in the casebook, you may find it an advantage to extract ideas and quotations you intend to use and jot them down on note cards. This has the advantage of leaving you free of the book when you begin to write. The form you use in taking these notes makes little difference as long as each note is carefully identified as coming from a particular source.

The fourth step, once you have found all available answers to your research question, is organizing these answers and coming up with a thesis of your own. This thesis may be one of two sorts. First, it may be an original answer to the question which you are exploring. After you have considered all your sources of information, you may decide that none of

their answers are adequate and then go on to suggest one of your own. The essay which would follow from this type of thesis would consist of (1) a statement and explanation of your thesis, (2) a summary of the opinions of other authors and a rebuttal of them, (3) a proof or development of your thesis, (4) some sort of a conclusion showing the consequences or importance of your thesis.

A second kind of thesis--less imaginative and interesting, but nonetheless valid--would be one which classifies, orders, and analyzes the opinions of other authors about the question you have formulated. The essay which would follow from this type of thesis would consist of (1) a statement making clear the order which you give to those opinions--such as "Three major solutions have been suggested to the problem of teenage marriage. . . ," (2) a detailed discussion of each of those opinions, (3) some sort of a conclusion evaluating or showing the relative significance of those opinions.

Regardless of the type of thesis you come up with, you should remember that its importance is central in your essay. Not only is the thesis your contribution to the existing arguments about your topic, it is also the best device for organizing your entire essay.

VII. Footnotes

Although footnotes seem to mystify many students, their function is simple. They are used to identify the source of a quotation, to credit the author of an opinion or the discoverer of a unique fact, or to provide additional information which cannot be worked into the text of a paper. Footnotes should always be kept to a minimum; and whenever any footnote can be avoided by reworking a sentence, it is usually wise to do so. It is seldom possible, however, to avoid footnotes altogether in a research paper.

Footnote numbers usually should be consecutive throughout a paper. You need not begin renumbering your footnotes when you change from one page to another. The number should be put one-half space above the line on which it appears, as in this sentence.[1] It should follow immediately after the last mark of punctuation without any space between it and the punctuation mark. The number should not be put in parentheses, and it should appear after the quotation and not after the author's name, if that appears in the text. You should usually use a number, not a letter or any other mark.

The location of footnotes should usually be on a separate sheet of paper following the last page of the text. Some teachers may prefer to have you place footnotes at the bottom of the page on which the footnote number appears, since this provides for easier reading. But the complications in typing footnotes at the bottom of the page probably outweigh the value which this practice has for the reader.

Form.

1. Use the following order for first references to published books:

a. Author's name. This should appear in normal order and not last name first. Give the complete name of the author as it appears on the title page of the book. Put a comma after the author's last name. If there is more than one author, list them all.

b. The title of the chapter or section of the book. This should be put in quotation marks--not underlined--and should be followed by a comma inside the final quotation mark. You do not need to include chapter titles of books if you have used an edition of the complete book.

c. Title of the work. This should be taken from the title page of the book and should be underlined and followed by a comma.

d. The name of the editor or translator (if the book has either of these). Again, the name should be in normal order and should be preceded by ed. or trans. The name should be followed by a comma.

e. Place(s) and date(s) of the publication. This information should be put in parentheses with a comma after the place. It is not necessary to give the name of the publisher.

f. Volume number (if there is more than one volume to the work). This should appear in capital Roman numerals with a comma before and after. If the page number follows the volume number, do not use Vol.; for example, (New York, 1966), Vol. III, but (New York, 1966), III, 344.

g. Page number(s). If the page number is in small Roman numerals, copy it exactly as it appears in the book. The page number should be preceded by a comma and followed by a period (unless something follows in that sentence of the footnote). Use a single small p., followed by a period, for a single page; use pp. for more than one page. Do not use these abbreviations when a volume number is given. For example, (New York, 1966), p. 127; (New York, 1966), pp. 127-128; (New York, 1966), III, 344.

Here are some sample footnote references to books:

[1]Edgar Z. Friedenberg, "Adolescence in an Open Society," Coming of Age in America (New York, 1965), p. 4.

[2]David Riesman, The Lonely Crowd (New York, 1953), pp. 29-31.

[3]Encyclopedia Britannica (New York, 1965), I, 347.

(This last footnote is an example of a reference to a work without an identified author.)

2. Use the following order for first references to articles in periodicals; unless otherwise noted, use the same form as that used for books:

a. Author's name.

b. Full title in quotation marks.

c. Name of the periodical. This should be underlined and followed by a comma.

d. Volume number. Use capital Roman numerals without "Vol." Use a comma after the volume number unless what follows is enclosed in parentheses. You may omit volume numbers for newspapers and weekly or monthly periodicals; give the complete date instead, setting it off with commas rather than enclosing it in parentheses.

e. The date. This should be put in parentheses with a comma separating the month--or season, if the journal is a quarterly--from the year.

f. Page number(s). Do not use p. or pp.; these are used only for page numbers of books.

Here are some sample footnote references to periodicals.

[1]Blaine R. Porter, "American Teen-Agers of the 1960's--Our Despair or Hope?," Journal of Marriage and the Family, LVIII (May, 1965), 139-147.

[2]"The Neuter Look," Newsweek, LXVII (February 14, 1966), 59-60. (Since Newsweek is a weekly magazine, the volume number may be omitted.)

Second references to the same work require a change in footnote form to avoid unnecessary repetition. If a second reference to a work already cited appears immediately following the first reference, the Latin abbreviation ibid., meaning "in the same place," can be substituted for the complete citation which appeared in the first note. For example,

[1]Blaine R. Porter, "American Teen-Agers of the 1960's--Our Despair or Hope?," Journal of Marriage and the Family, LVIII (May, 1965), 139-147.

[2]Ibid., p. 147.

[3]Ibid.

When no page number accompanies the ibid., the reader is to assume that the reference is to the same page as the preceding note.

If you are citing two or more sources, and a reference to one has followed the one to which you wish to refer a second time, simply repeat the author's last name and follow it with the page number. For example,

[1]Blaine R. Porter, "American Teen-Agers of the 1960's--Our Despair or Hope?," Journal of Marriage and the Family, LVIII (May, 1965), 139-147.

[2]David Riesman, The Lonely Crowd (New York, 1953), p. 29.

[3]Porter, p. 140.

Internal Citation.

If a note is brief include it within parentheses in the text of your essay. Internal citation is particularly useful if you use one reference consistently throughout your essay. If you do so, give a full citation for the first reference, followed by the sentence, "Further references to this work will appear in the text." Then, simply insert the appropriate page numbers in the text (p. 17).

VIII. Bibliography

The bibliography is much less important than the footnotes, since it usually consists merely of an alphabetical list by author of the works cited in the footnotes. A bibliography of this type is usually titled "Bibliography of Works Cited." Other types of bibliographies include "Bibliography of Works Consulted," which includes all books used in writing the research paper whether or not they are cited in the footnotes, and "Annotated Bibliography," which includes a brief summary of the contents of a book or an evaluation of it as well as the usual formal listing. If you use only the casebook in doing research for your paper, it is not at all necessary to make up a bibliography, since it would include only a listing for the casebook. If, however, you use outside sources, you may wish to compile a bibliography.

Following are some sample bibliographical entries:

Hammond, John S. "Bringing Order into the Selection of a College," Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXIV (1965), 654-660.

Hechinger, Grace and Fred M. The Teen-Age Tyranny. New York, 1965.

The first is a bibliographical entry for an article from a periodical, and it differs from a footnote only in the order of the author's name and the listing of the inclusive page numbers of the article. The second is a bibliographical entry for a book; it differs from a footnote in that the last name of the author appears first, the publication information is not enclosed in parentheses, and no page numbers are listed.

IX. Format

The format of the research paper is the least important part of doing research, but students often give it more attention than anything else. You should be aware, however, that many teachers are influenced by first impressions. If you have given some attention to the form of your manuscript and have made it appear neat and easy to read, you will have created a favorable first impression which may affect the way your ideas are received.

Manuscript Form. If you can type well, by all means type your paper. Double space, except for extensive quotations, which should be single-spaced and indented twenty-five spaces from the left edge of the paper. Never write on the back of the page. Always use 8 1/2 x 11" white paper of good weight.

Space down twelve spaces from the top and center the title for page one. Begin numbering the pages beginning with page two; center the number on the sixth line from the top edge of the page, and set it off with a single dash on each side. Stop typing six lines from the bottom edge of the paper, or when the paper is released from the typewriter roller. Set the left hand margin at 15 and the right hand margin at 75. (For elite [small] type set the right hand margin at 90.) Indent five spaces for the beginning of each paragraph. A few corrections may be made neatly in black ink after you have finished typing. If possible, however, correct all mistakes with an eraser as you type through your paper.

Quotations. Use double quotation marks for any passage of five typed lines or less. Use single quotation marks for a quotation within a quotation. A quotation exceeding five typed lines should begin 25 spaces from the left edge of the paper and be singlespaced. Do not use quotation marks around these indented quotes; use double quotes within this type of quotation. If you insert any remarks of your own into a quotation, put them in brackets [ ]. Any words, phrases, clauses, or sentences which you omit should be marked with an elipsis; that is, three periods for omissions within a sentence, four periods for omissions at the end of the sentence. The fourth period is the normal period which would end the sentence.

Page Order. Put your paper in some type of folder. An inexpensive manila file folder is the best thing available for this purpose since it has no permanent fasteners which make it difficult for your teacher to remove your footnote page as he reads your essay. Use simply a paperclip to hold your pages together. The first page inside the folder should be the title page, on which the title of your essay should be centered. At the lower right of the title page, type on separate lines your name, the date, and the name and number of the class for which your paper was written. The second page should be the beginning of your essay. After the final page of the essay should appear your footnote page, followed by your bibliography (if you have one), and a blank page for your teacher's comments.

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OREGON CURRICULUM STUDY CENTER

THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT TODAY: A CASEBOOK
and
A GUIDE TO RESEARCH

Rhetoric Curriculum V
Student Version

The project reported herein was supported through the Cooperative Research Program of the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

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Preface

Just about every day you can hear someone insist, "But everyone is entitled to an opinion." In a free society, such as the one we enjoy, this may be so; but even within a free society no one who is well informed considers every opinion equally valid. Being well informed--being well educated--involves the ability to discriminate carefully between an opinion which is worth considering and one which is not. But even though an intelligent reader may reject or accept an opinion as soon as he has heard or read it either entirely or in part, he has spent much time and effort acquiring the skills of intellectual discrimination.

Whether you realize it or not, you make very sophisticated judgments of other people's opinions every day. Consider these opinions: "An XKE is better than a Triumph." "Always fish for trout with your back to the sun." "A redhead should never wear a red dress." "Parents are usually more conservative than their children." "College graduates make more money than non-graduates." According to your experiences with cars, fishing, and redheads, you are likely either to accept or reject the first three opinions; and according to what you have read or heard, you would similarly judge the last two.

But how objective and reliable are your opinions and your judgments of the opinions of others? No doubt they serve you well enough for your everyday needs, for if they didn't you would probably alter them without much hesitation. But when we approach a very complex problem such as the comparative social philosophy of parents and children or the economic advantages of a college education, everyday experience is neither extensive enough nor reliable enough for us to formulate an opinion with any degree of confidence. Thus, for such extensive topics as these, we need to consult a wide variety of opinions and to evaluate those opinions by checking their author's information against the information of other authors or the information provided by some disinterested, objective source of information. That is, we need to do some research.

Yet this is only part of what is involved in doing research, for the result of such a sifting of opinion and fact is usually the creation of new opinion of our own. It is this new opinion which is the most important product of research. Coming up with a new opinion is, by no means, an entirely new task. Throughout your study of rhetoric for the last four and a half years you have been paying close attention to the precise meaning and choice of words, the concern for the opinions of an audience, the construction of an argument, and other skills which are indispensable in doing research and in writing a research paper. Part II of this unit deals with the use of those skills in evaluating the opinions of others and in coming up with valid opinions of your own.

Unlike an ordinary research project, however, the information necessary for the one you will undertake is entirely provided for you in the casebook. This has at least two advantages. Many high school libraries are too small to provide adequate information for all but a few research topics, and it will be easier for your teacher to help you through the various phases of your project if he has read all the source material that you incorporate into your paper.

As you begin to read the casebook, you will notice immediately that your own notion of the American high school student today is limited by what a sociologist might call your frame of reference. You are likely to think of high school students in terms of what you think of yourself and your friends, what your parents and other adults think of you and your friends, and what your friends think of you and of each other. As you progress through the casebook, however, your frame of reference should become broader so that you also see high school students and their problems through the eyes of the authors whose essays you read. This does not mean that you will agree with all the essays; that would be difficult, since they often contradict each other. Rather, it means that you should consider each author's opinion and, if you reject it, know why you reject it. Once you have done this, you will be entitled to an opinion worthy of someone else's consideration.

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PART I

The American High-School Student Today

Introduction

The articles that follow deal with what many sociologists believe are key problems in adolescent society. Every age in the history of Western civilization has expressed deep concern about its youth, since one generation realizes that what it has accomplished will be inherited by the generation that follows. When a younger generation seems more concerned with its own future than with what has been accomplished in the past, often the older generation is distressed. When this worry becomes alarm, we begin to hear it said that "youth is going to the dogs." But in one form or another the alarm which this phrase expresses has been felt by parents and persons of authority *at least since the time of Aristotle.*

What we ask, then, as the central question in this casebook is, "Is there an actual revolution taking place in the behavior of high school students today?" In concerning ourselves with this question, we have necessarily limited our focus, concentrating on five specific problems--dress and fashion, teenage marriage, finances, the rush to college, and the dropout. As you read these selections, try to limit the subject even further, so that you eventually formulate a single thesis which you will explore in your own research paper.

I. The Teenage Revolution: Myth or Reality?

"American Teen-Agers of the 1960's--
Our Despair of Hope?"

by Blaine R. Porter

(For text, see Journal of Marriage and the Family, LVIII (May, 1965), pp. 139-147.)

"Adolescence in an Open Society"

by Edgar Z. Friedenberg

(For text, see Coming of Age in America (Random House, New York, 1965), beginning on p. 3 with "What is most extraordinary about youth. . . ." and ending on p. 14 with ". . .looks and sounds different.")

"Alienation" from Growing Up Absurd

by Paul Goodman

(For text, see Growing Up Absurd (Random House, New York, 1960), pp. 237-251.)

"Inner Direction and Other Direction"

by David Riesman

(For text, see The Lonely Crowd by David Riesman, Nathan Glazer, and Reuel Denney (Doubleday, 1953)), beginning on p. 29 with "A definition of inner-direction. . . ." and ending on p. 39 with ". . .rapid changes of signals.")

II. Dress and Fashion

"The Neuter Look"

(For text, see "Uni-sex" in Newsweek, Vol. LXVII (February 14, 1966), pp. 59-60.)

"Hairsplitting"

(For text, see Time, Vol. LXXXVII (May 27, 1966), pp. 55-56.)

"Regulating Student Dress"

by Dorothy Waleski

(For text, see NEA Journal, Vol. LV (April, 1966), pp. 12-14.)

"Wild Hairdos and Eccentric Clothes
Cause Publicity But Few Problems"

by Marilyn H. Cutler

(For text, see Nation's Schools, Vol. LXXV (April, 1965), McGraw Hill Co., New York; pp. 86-88.)

III. Teen-age Marriages

"Trends and Prospects for Young Marriages
in the United States"

by Lee G. Burchinal

(For text, see Journal of Marriage and the Family, Vol. LVIII (May 1965), pp. 243-254.)

"Teen-Agers: Growing Up Too Fast?"

by Audrey Rieger

(For text, see The Clearing House (October 1963), pp. 74-76.)

"The Early Marriage Debate"

by Cecilia Evans Barrish

(For text, see Practical Forecast (April 1965), pp. 12-13, 40-41.)

"On What Can Be Done About Teen-Age Marriages"

by Earl H . Hansen

(For text, see NEA Journal, Vol. L (September 1961), pp. 26-28.)

IV. Finances

"Why Today's Teen-Agers Seem So Different"

by Eugene Gilbert

(For text, see Harper's Magazine (November 1959), Vol. CCIX, Harper & Row; pp. 76-79.)

"The Economics of a Teenager"

by Philmore B. Wass

(For text, see National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, XLIV (April 1960), pp. 30-32.)

"Teen-Age Shopping"

by Grace and Fred M. Hechinger

(For text, see Teen-Age Tyranny (Wm. Morrow, New York, 1963), pp. 151-179.)

V. The Rush to College

"College Education for What?"

by Wayne C. Booth

(For text, see NEA Journal, LIV (December 1965), pp. 14-16.)

"After Graduation, 63 Per Cent to College!"

(For text, see Senior Scholastic, LXXVI (April 27, 1960), p. 28.)

"Consequences of the Social Climate for Homework and College Attendance"

by James Coleman

(For text, see The Adolescent Society (The Free Press, New York, 1961), beginning on p. 266 with "Two factors that might at first. . . ." and ending on p. 272 with ". . .college-going of Elmtown girls.")

"The New High School Kids"

(For text, see Time, Vol. LXXVIII (December 22, 1961), pp. 38-39.)

VI. The Dropout

"Conclusion" to The Dropouts

by Solomon O. Lichter

(For text, see The Dropouts (The Free Press, New York, 1962), beginning on p. 245 with "Education for all children. . . ." and ending on p. 253 with ". . .problems and school difficulties."; and selection beginning on p. 267 with "In response to a variety. . . ." and ending on p. 269 with ". . .hampered by personality conflicts.")

"Forces Influencing Decisions to Leave School"

by Charles M. Allen

(For text, see Combating the Dropout Problem (Science Research Association, Chicago, 1956), pp. 18-22.)

"A High School Principal Reports"

by Lucius Cervantes

(For text, see The Dropout (Univ. of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, 1965), pp. 126-139.)

"Case History of Robert Rawlinson"

by Lucius Cervantes

(For text, see The Dropout (Univ. of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, 1965), pp. 225-228.)

Suggestions for Papers

Papers Using Only the Casebook

1. Analyze one of the problems explored in Sections II-VI according to the opinions of one of the authors in Section I.

2. To what extent do current fashions emphasize what Riesman has called the trend toward other-direction?

3. What role should the school have--if any--in the regulation of student dress?

4. To what extent is teenage marriage a social problem for the school?

5. What sorts of social problems are likely to develop because a married couple are teenagers?

6. What social forces tend to contribute to teenage marriages?

7. How extensive a problem is teenage marriage?

8. Analyze the articles in Section III according to the information which Burchinal presents in his article.

9. What makes teenagers a likely target for advertisements?

10. How does Grace and Fred M. Hechinger's article reveal their concern for what they call the "teen-age tyranny"?

11. What are the reasons for the rush to college?

12. What are the alternatives to the rush to college?

13. What are the factors which are a principal cause of students dropping out of school?

14. What can the school do to encourage students to stay in school?

15. Analyze the "Case History of Robert Rawlinson" and determine the correlation between his history and the analysis of the dropout problem by the authors of the other articles in Section VI.

Papers Involving Outside Research

1. Find and evaluate the rules for student dress at your school.

2. If you know a teenage married couple, interview them about any social problems which their marriage may have caused.

3. Select three or four issues of such a magazine as Seventeen and analyze its advertisers' attempts to appeal to the youth market.

4. Conduct a survey of students' reasons for wanting to attend college. Evaluate the reasons with the help of Wayne Booth's article.

5. Interview the counselors and vice-principals of your high school and ask them what is being done to help combat the dropout problem at your school.

6. If you know any students who have dropped out of school, interview them about their reasons for dropping out of school and what they feel can be done to encourage students to stay in school.

PART II

A Guide to Research

I. The Nature of Research

After reading the casebook you might have the idea that writing a research paper involves pasting together ideas of the authors you have already read, supplying a few footnotes, and perhaps constructing a graph or two. You may have written papers before which involved nothing more than this, but if you have done so, you have no doubt been left with the feeling that writing such papers was not only useless but boring as well.

In certain situations it is useful to write a paper which attempts nothing more than summarizing the views of another author. Such a paper is usually called a "report," and it serves the necessary function either of demonstrating that you have indeed read the material about which you report or of providing information which is part of some class project.

Unlike a report, however, a research paper ought to develop a new idea about a given subject. In coming up with this idea, the writer begins by re-searching his topic; that is, he searches again through information which has already been explored and commented upon. His purpose here is a combination of seeking information, challenging the opinions of other writers, and formulating his own opinion. But unlike the writer of a report, the researcher does not merely repeat the arguments he finds already in print; rather, he uses the opinions of other writers to clarify and support his own views.

It is the presentation of one's own opinions which makes the writing of a research paper both potentially useful and interesting. If the researcher has carefully weighed the factual information which supports his claims and critically examined the opinions of other writers, the paper he writes will be useful to him in adding to his own knowledge in one of the most significant ways in which we acquire knowledge: by relating a body of information to our own values and experiences. Furthermore, if someone is not interested in examining and adding to his intellectual experiences, there is probably little else in which he will be interested.

II. Perspective and Plagiarism

Several practical problems occur when we are formulating our own ideas and critically examining other people's ideas at the same time. One problem is of perspective. It is tempting and easy to become so preoccupied with our own opinions that we fail to give careful attention to conflicting views. At the other extreme is the possibility of becoming overwhelmed by the opinions of other writers. Some students come to believe that anything they read is somehow sacred doctrine, not to be questioned. Since you have been studying rhetoric with some care, however, it should by now be obvious that an idea is only as valid or persuasive as the demonstrated

ability of an author in making it so. But at the same time, complete skepticism is an equally serious handicap. We often hear the exaggerated statement, "You can't believe anything you read in the newspaper." If this were true, subscribers would discontinue their subscriptions or news agencies would stop spending millions of dollars discovering what is happening. The best solution to the problem of perspective is a critical awareness of the problem and an effort to avoid its pitfalls.

Another problem is honesty, both simple honesty and complicated honesty. Simple honesty consists of crediting any distinctive phrase, any sentence, any paragraph to its author. Plagiarism, on the other hand, is an attempt to pass off as one's own work the writing of someone else. Indeed plagiarism is a complex psychological and ethical problem. Students who plagiarize often do so because of some fear that their own ideas are inadequate. Once they begin to be intellectually dishonest, they find it difficult to avoid the temptation to cheat on every paper they write. They aren't convinced that an honest B is better than a dishonest A. If a student lacks the stability to expose his own work to discussion, criticism, and correction--or if he lacks an ethical sense--he is likely to be affected by nothing more than fear of the consequences of his act.

Disciplinary action for cases of plagiarism vary greatly from one school to another. Usually in junior high school, a student, if caught, receives merely an F on his paper. In senior high school, he may be failed in his course. In most colleges, he may be suspended for as much as a year or expelled entirely. For a graduate student or a practicing scholar, an instance of plagiarism finishes his career.

Although problems involving simple honesty never occur accidentally, problems involving complicated honesty often occur because of carelessness or ignorance. As we have defined it, plagiarism occurs when someone willfully copies word-for-word what someone else has written and pretends it is his own. It is possible, however, to paraphrase or summarize the ideas of another writer and use them without giving proper credit to their author. This problem usually occurs not because of dishonesty but because of faulty documentation. We will examine this matter in more detail in the section on footnoting. But in any case, if a writer carefully identifies his sources of information, he is almost never accused of plagiarism or intellectual dishonesty.

III. The Presuppositions of Research

Every intellectual activity which people perform involves what philosophers call "presuppositions." A presupposition is not an assumption. If you say, "I assume I will get an A in this course," you mean that you don't know for sure that you will get an A, but what indications you have lead you to assume you will get an A.

So that we can get at the nature of presuppositions, imagine yourself the owner of some large factory which produces a chemical. One day there is an explosion in your factory, so you hire a scientist to find the cause of the explosion. After a couple of weeks the scientist comes to you and says,

"Sorry, but I haven't found the cause of the explosion. I have used up your $750 in experimenting, but I still don't know what caused the explosion." Suppose you say, "Well, maybe the explosion didn't have a cause." At this point your scientist would give you a strange look and no doubt reply, "Of course it had a cause. All events have causes." Let's imagine you're stubborn and he's patient. You ask, "How do you know all events have causes?" He replies, "I don't know it; in order to know it I would have to know the cause of every event. Rather I presuppose it. If I didn't presuppose all events have causes I wouldn't be able to operate as a scientist."

This, then, is a presupposition: a statement which you cannot prove but which you must accept in order to perform a particular intellectual activity. Like scientific experimentation, research has a set of presuppositions. Like the scientist, the researcher assumes that all events have causes which are natural, logical, or psychological. He presupposes, in other words, that he can study any event and may eventually learn its cause. If he fails to detect its cause, however, he continues to presuppose that if he had only worked at the job longer, he would have eventually discovered a cause.

Further, he presupposes that there is a finite--or limited--number of causes for every event. Perhaps six events led to the explosion in the factory; perhaps 60; perhaps 600. But if the scientist worked long enough, he would be able to detect all the causes contributing to the explosion. Similarly, the researcher presupposes that he can detect all the causes of any particular occurrence.

Further, he presupposes that the methods of research can produce probability and not certainty. Suppose the scientist had replied to your first question, "I have it, Y caused the explosion." "Great," you say, "but are you certain?" To this the scientist would reply, "My methods produce probability, not certainty. Every bit of information I have points to Y as the cause of the explosion. But I do not wish to cut myself off from the possiblity of revision on this point if any evidence should pop up indicating Y is not the cause. I am reasonably sure; that's all I can say." The researcher, too, does not wish to cut himself off from the possibility of revision. He recalls only too well that at one time many people were certain the world was flat and that it, rather than the sun, was the center of the solar system.

IV. Finding Facts

Since research involves finding and interpreting facts and since it presupposes that causes of events are detectable, one of the most important skills a researcher must acquire is the ability to distinguish fact from opinion. On the surface this problem seems much simpler than it actually is. If we consider history, for example, we can superficially distinguish between the chronicler, who simply records events which take place, and the historian, who interprets, analyzes, and offers opinions about what may have caused an event to take place or what significance the event itself

may have on the course of history. But this distinction--though partly accurate--is superficial because no chronicler records every event which takes place. When you watch the news report on television each night, the reporter, who is a kind of chronicler, relates only the events of major importance which happened during the day. He omits such facts as your receiving a C on an English exam. Either the reporter or a news editor has decided--on the basis of his opinion--what information is of general importance or interest. Thus, the selection of facts requires judgment and the careful exercise of opinion.

Besides selecting the facts he considers important and deciding what facts his sources have omitted, the researcher must be concerned with the way in which the facts are presented. Even the name we attach to a particular event may color or interpret the nature of the event itself. A British historian writing about the American Revolutionary War has called it the Colonial Rebellion, while many American historians call it the War of Independence. Here the difference in name is a difference in perspective, even though the event remains the same. Unfortunately, facts never do speak for themselves; they are always subject to the perspective of the researcher for whom they have a particular importance.

The misleading little phrase, "Let the facts speak for themselves," is often used in connection with statistics. We all hear a great many rival claims of toothpaste manufacturers, each of whom claims that a selected group of children who used one brand of toothpaste had a certain percent fewer cavities than another group of children who used some other brand. The appeal of such an advertisement is to the blind trust which many people have in statistics. In his interesting and entertaining little book How to Lie with Statistics (W. W. Norton Co., New York, 1954), Darrell Huff lists five simple questions which can be used effectively to test such a statistic as this.

The first question to ask is "Who Says So?" If the research which led to the conclusion that Brand Q toothpaste prevents cavities better than Brand R was conducted by some independent concern--an agency of the government or a medical research foundation--it is likely to be much more trustworthy than if it were conducted by a research concern employed by Brand Q.

The second question to ask is "How Does He Know?" Even if the research were conducted by an independent concern, the findings are invalid unless the research techniques were themselves valid. If, for example, the children who used Brand Q and had fewer cavities also drank more milk than the children in the other group, saw their dentist more often, and drank fluoridated water--we have every right to ask if the condition of their teeth might not be attributed to these other conditions rather than to the toothpaste they used.

The third question to ask is "What's Missing?" A knowledge of the number of children involved in the comparison is essential. If 10,000 children in every part of the country for a period of 5 years were involved in the test, it would have more significance than if 10 children from New Jersey participated for 30 days. Unfortunately, we are often told the

results of a study in percentage figures rather than in raw figures. Darrell Huff illustrates the danger of this practice by telling an anecdote. Many years ago, when some people still thought that girls should not go to the same colleges as men, it was reported that at one American university thirty-three and a third per cent of the coeds had married faculty members. As a matter of fact, there were only three women students enrolled, and one of them had married a professor.

The fourth question to ask is "Did Somebody Change the Subject?" When someone attempts to draw conclusions from statistics he often makes a significant change from the subject of the survey to the subject of the conclusion. It may be said with deliberate ambiguity that Brand Q toothpaste reduces the cavities of those who use it. What the toothpaste may actually do--if, indeed, it does even that--is prevent new cavities. It does not reduce cavities, either in size or in number. Further problems of this sort arise when statistical results from different years are compared. One study compares the number of unwed teenage mothers in an Eastern city for 1950 with the number for 1960. There were more unwed mothers in 1960 than in 1950, and the study concludes that teenage morality is declining. Two important facts are ignored, however. One is that there were more teenagers in 1960 than in 1950, since the population of the city increased by 15,000. Another is that a more reliable count was taken in 1960 than in 1950.

The fifth question to ask is "Does It Make Sense?" Darrell Huff recalls that during the amendment hearings about the Social Security Act back in the 1930s someone argued that since life expectancy was only about sixty years, it was totally unrealistic to set up sixty-five as a retirement age. This argument can be refuted simply by our personal experience: we see dozens of people each day who are sixty-five or older. Sixty-five may have been an average life expectancy, but the deaths of children and young men in war affected that figure considerably.

V. Judging Opinions

Unlike a statement of fact, which can be verified by reference to actual experience or observation, an opinion largely depends upon the reliability of who says it and on the context in which he says it. We can ask a series of questions which often help in judging the validity of an opinion.

1. Who said it? Even though he may be guessing, an author who is a specialist in his field usually deserves more careful consideration than a free-lance author who writes only for popular magazines. The credentials of many authors can be checked by looking in Who's Who in America, a directory which you should find in your high school library. In judging the author's right to be labeled a specialist, you should make sure that his field of specialization and the subject about which he is writing are the same. Often an author will gain a reputation in one field--physics for example--but then become interested in another--possibly politics--for which he has no training. Bertrand Russell has written authoritatively about mathematics and philosophy; but when he ventures into politics and education, his opinions do not command the same respect.

3. Do the facts which are available lend credibility to his claim? Occasionally an author who is not professionally committed to a field of study will uncover information or suggest hypotheses which contradict established opinion in his field. But because of his independence such an author may be capable of seeing something new in readily accessible facts. On the other hand, a specialist may make exaggerated claims for a thesis which he believes to be true but for which he is unable to provide factual support. In both cases, our concern is with the author's treatment of orthodox opinion and the factual information available.

3. Is his claim logical? Even though an author may be a specialist in his field, he is not immune to logical fallacies. Thus you should pay careful attention when he attempts to draw conclusions from the facts he has uncovered.

VI. Coming Up with an Idea

Once you have finished reading the casebook and considered the validity of the opinions of the authors whose essays are collected there, you should be ready to select a subject for your own essay. Usually some subject will stand out in a reader's mind after he has finished reading such a collection as this, a subject which seems to hold more interest and more possibilities for development than other topics which may occur to him. But simply deciding on a topic is not all that is necessary before you begin to write.

The second step is formulating a research question about your topic. If you decide on the topic of teenage marriage, for example, you will need to formulate such a question as one of these: How widespread a problem is teenage marriage? What social problems are caused by teenage marriage? What significance does teenage marriage have for the school? In formulating such a question, you narrow your topic to a more manageable size, which will make it easier for you to organize your essay.

The third preliminary step to writing the essay is returning to the casebook with your research question in mind, in an effort to find all available answers to the question. If you were using library resources rather than a casebook, it would be necessary at this point to take careful notes so that all relevant information would be at hand as you write your essay. Even though you do have most of your information collected for you in the casebook, you may find it an advantage to extract ideas and quotations you intend to use and jot them down on note cards. This has the advantage of leaving you free of the book when you begin to write. The form you use in taking these notes makes little difference as long as each note is carefully identified as coming from a particular source.

The fourth step, once you have found all available answers to your research question, is organizing these answers and coming up with a thesis of your own. This thesis may be one of two sorts. First, it may be an original answer to the question which you are exploring. After you have considered all your sources of information, you may decide that none of

their answers are adequate and then go on to suggest one of your own. The essay which would follow from this type of thesis would consist of (1) a statement and explanation of your thesis, (2) a summary of the opinions of other authors and a rebuttal of them, (3) a proof or development of your thesis, (4) some sort of a conclusion showing the consequences or importance of your thesis.

A second kind of thesis--less imaginative and interesting, but nonetheless valid--would be one which classifies, orders, and analyzes the opinions of other authors about the question you have formulated. The essay which would follow from this type of thesis would consist of (1) a statement making clear the order which you give to these opinions--such as "Three major solutions have been suggested to the problem of teenage marriage. . . ." (2) a detailed discussion of each of these opinions, (3) some sort of a conclusion evaluating or showing the relative significance of these opinions.

Regardless of the type of thesis you come up with, you should remember that its importance is central in your essay. Not only is the thesis your contribution to the existing arguments about your topic, it is also the best device for organizing your entire essay.

VII. Footnotes

Although footnotes seem to mystify many students, their function is simple. They are used to identify the source of a quotation, to credit the author of an opinion or the discoverer of a unique fact, or to provide additional information which cannot be worked into the text of a paper. Footnotes should always be kept to a minimum; and whenever any footnote can be avoided by reworking a sentence, it is usually wise to do so. It is seldom possible, however, to avoid footnotes altogether in a research paper.

Footnote numbers usually should be consecutive throughout a paper. You need not begin renumbering your footnotes when you change from one page to another. The number should be put one-half space above the line on which it appears, as in this sentence.[1] It should follow immediately after the last mark of punctuation without any space between it and the punctuation mark. The number should not be put in parentheses, and it should appear after the quotation and not after the author's name, if that appears in the text. You should usually use a number, not a letter or any other mark.

The location of footnotes should usually be on a separate sheet of paper following the last page of the text. Some teachers may prefer to have you place footnotes at the bottom of the page on which the footnote number appears, since this provides for easier reading. But the complications in typing footnotes at the bottom of the page probably outweigh the value which this practice has for the reader.

Form.

1. Use the following order for first references to published books:

a. *Author's name.* This should appear in normal order and not last name first. Give the complete name of the author as it appears on the title page of the book. Put a comma after the author's last name. If there is more than one author, list them all.

b. The title of the chapter or section of the book. This should be put in quotation marks--not underlined--and should be followed by a comma inside the final quotation mark. You do not need to include chapter titles of books if you have used an edition of the complete book.

c. Title of the work. This should be taken from the title page of the book and should be underlined and followed by a comma.

d. The name of the editor or translator (if the book has either of these). Again, the name should be in normal order and should be preceded by ed. or trans. The name should be followed by a comma.

e. Place(s) and date(s) of the publication. This information should be put in parentheses with a comma after the place. It is not necessary to give the name of the publisher.

f. Volume number (if there is more than one volume in the work). This should appear in capital Roman numerals with a comma before and after. If the page number follows the volume number, do not use Vol.; for example, (New York, 1968), Vol. III, but (New York, 1968), III, 346.

g. Page number(s). If the page number is in small Roman numerals, copy it exactly as it appears in the book. The page number should be preceded by a comma and followed by a period (unless something follows in that sentence of the footnote). Use a single small p., followed by a period, for a single page; use pp. for more than one page. Do not use these abbreviations when a volume number is given. For example, (New York, 1968), p. 127; (New York, 1968), pp. 127-130; (New York, 1968), III, 346.

Here are some example footnote references to books:

[1]Edgar Z. Friedenberg, "Adolescence in an Open Society," Coming of Age in America (New York, 1965), p. 6.

[2]David Riesman, The Lonely Crowd (New York, 1953), pp. 29-31.

[3]Encyclopedia Britannica (New York, 1965), I, 347.

(This last footnote is an example of a reference to a work without an identified author.)

2. Use the following order for first references to articles in periodical; unless otherwise noted, use the same form as that used for books:

a. Author's name.

b. Full title in quotation marks.

c. Name of the periodical. This should be underlined and followed by a comma.

d. Volume number. Use capital Roman numerals without "Vol." Use a comma after the volume number unless what follows is enclosed in parentheses. You may omit volume numbers for newspapers and weekly or monthly periodicals; give the complete date instead, setting it off with commas rather than enclosing it in parentheses.

e. The date. This should be put in parentheses with a comma separating the month--or season, if the journal is a quarterly--from the year.

f. Page number(s). Do not use p. or pp.; these are used only for page numbers of books.

Here are some sample footnote references to periodicals.

[1]Elaine R. Porter, "American Teen-Agers of the 1960's--Our Despair or Hope?," Journal of Marriage and the Family, LVIII (May, 1961), 139-147.

[2]"The Neuter Look," Newsweek, LXVII (February 14, 1966), 59-60. (Since Newsweek is a weekly magazine, the volume number may be omitted.)

Second references to the same work require a change in footnote form to avoid unnecessary repetition. If a second reference to a work already cited appears immediately following the first reference, the Latin abbreviation Ibid., meaning "in the same place," can be substituted for the complete citation which appeared in the first note. For example,

[1]Elaine R. Porter, "American Teen-Agers of the 1960's--Our Despair or Hope?," Journal of Marriage and the Family, LVIII (May, 1961), 139-147.

[2]Ibid., p. 147.

[3]Ibid.

When no page number accompanies the Ibid., the reader is to assume that the reference is to the same page as the preceding note.

If you are citing two or more sources, and a reference to one has followed the one to which you wish to refer a second time, simply repeat the author's last name and follow it with the page number. For example,

[1]Elaine R. Porter, "American Teen-Agers of the 1960's--Our Despair or Hope?," Journal of Marriage and the Family, XXVIII (May, 1966), 139-147.

[2]David Riesman, The Lonely Crowd (New York, 1953), p. 29.

[3]Porter, p. 140.

Informal Citation.

If a note is brief include it within parentheses in the text of your essay. Informal citation is particularly useful if you use one reference consistently throughout your essay. If you do so, give a full citation for the first reference, followed by the sentence, "Further references to this work will appear in the text." Then, simply insert the appropriate page numbers in the text (p. 17).

VIII. Bibliography

The bibliography is much less important than the footnotes, since it usually consists merely of an alphabetical list by author of the works cited in the footnotes. A bibliography of this type is usually titled "Bibliography of Works Cited." Other types of bibliographies include "Bibliography of Works Consulted," which includes all books used in writing the research paper whether or not they are cited in the footnotes, and "Annotated Bibliography," which includes a brief summary of the contents of a book or an evaluation of it as well as the usual formal listing. If you use only one textbook in doing research for your paper, it is not at all necessary to make up a bibliography, since it would include only a listing for the textbook. If, however, you use outside sources, you may wish to compile a bibliography.

Following are some sample bibliographical entries:

Hammond, John S. "Bringing Order into the Selection of a College," Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXIV (1963), 634-640.

Mechlinger, Grace and Fred M. The Teen-Age Tyranny. New York, 1963.

The first is a bibliographical entry for an article from a periodical, and it differs from a footnote only in the order of the author's name and the listing of the inclusive page numbers of the article. The second is a bibliographical entry for a book; it differs from a footnote in that the last name of the author appears first, the publication information is not enclosed in parentheses, and no page numbers are listed.

IX. Format.

The format of the research paper is the least important part of doing research, but students often give it more attention than anything else. You should be aware, however, that many teachers are influenced by first impressions. If you have given some attention to the form of your manuscript and have made it appear neat and easy to read, you will have created a favorable first impression which may affect the way your ideas are received.

Manuscript Form. If you can type well, by all means type your paper. Double space, except for extensive quotations, which should be single-spaced and indented twenty-five spaces from the left edge of the paper. Never write on the back of the page. Always use 8 1/2 x 11" white paper of good weight.

Space down twelve spaces from the top and center the title for page one. Begin numbering the pages beginning with page two; center the number on the sixth line from the top edge of the page, and set it off with a single dash on each side. Stop typing six lines from the bottom edge of the paper, or when the paper is released from the typewriter roller. Set the left hand margin at 15 and the right hand margin at 75. (For elite [small] type set the right hand margin at 90.) Indent five spaces for the beginning of each paragraph. A few corrections may be made neatly in black ink after you have finished typing. If possible, however, correct all mistakes with an eraser as you type through your paper.

Quotations. Use double quotation marks for any passage of five typed lines or less. Use single quotation marks for a quotation within a quotation. A quotation exceeding five typed lines should begin 15 spaces from the left edge of the paper and be single-spaced. Do not use quotation marks around these indented quotes; use double quotes within this type of quotation. If you insert any remarks of your own into a quotation, put them in brackets [ ]. Any words, phrases, clauses, or sentences which you omit should be marked with an ellipsis; that is, three periods for omissions within a sentence, four periods for omissions at the end of the sentence. The fourth period is the normal period which would end the sentence.

Page Order. Put your paper in some type of folder. An inexpensive manila file folder is the best thing available for this purpose since it has no permanent fasteners which make it difficult for your teacher to remove your footnote page as he reads your essay. Use simply a paperclip to hold your pages together. The first page inside the folder should be the title page, on which the title of your essay should be centered. At the lower right of the title page, type on separate lines your name, the date, and the name and number of the class for which your paper was written. The second page should be the beginning of your essay. After the final page of the essay should appear your footnote page, followed by your bibliography (if you have one), and a blank page for your teacher's comments.